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ABSTRACT

This project is in the process of developing a new curriculum, which they hope will provide senior high school inner city students with the requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will enable them in later life to participate effectively in the political life of their community. Specific cognitive objectives include: 1) knowledge of the major organizing concepts and modes of inquiry of the social science disciplines and the ability to use the concepts to explain urban phenomena; 2) to understand the nature of problem solving and possess the skills; and, 3) to understand and use media and develop communication skills. The affective objectives are: 1) to value different viewpoints on problems; 2) confidence in ones own political efficacy; and, 3) concern and involvement in the future of the inner city community. The material compiled by this date has been drawn from: Edward Fenton's Teaching the New Social Studies in Secondary Schools; and, Martin Feldman and Eli Seifman's The Social Studies: Structure, Models, and Strategies. An article by Joseph Schwab on structure is reviewed here, followed by a brief examination of the disciplines. Next, the findings and views of three researchers on problem solving are reviewed: B.B. Hodgins, G.S. Fulcher, and G.B. Cohen. D.K. Berlo's S-M-C-R model and Wilbur Schramm's model of the communication process are summarized, followed by an extensive bibliography. A list of materials to be developed is appended. (Author/SBE)

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inner city project

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INNER CITY PROJECT

STUDENT INITIATED RESEARCH INTO PROBLEMS OF THE INNER CITY

Britannia Secondary School
Vancouver, B.C.
June 1971

"As the pace of change accelerates and as the instruments of technology become more and more powerful, even the vast Canadian landscape appears to be shrinking; within our towns and cities familiar vistas disappear almost overnight. Our political decisions, which in a democratic society must be collective decisions, become increasingly complex and the citizen becomes increasingly frustrated. If the quality of our natural landscape is to be conserved and if the quality of townscape is to be improved, we--the Canadian people--need to learn to control our environment."

Project Canada West
March 1970

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PROJECT PERSONNEL

PROJECT PERSONNEL

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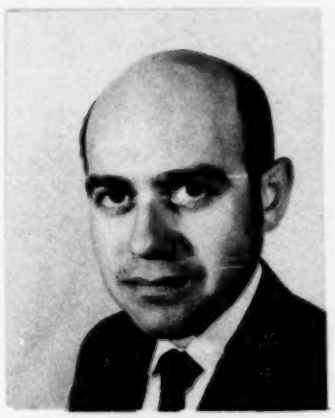

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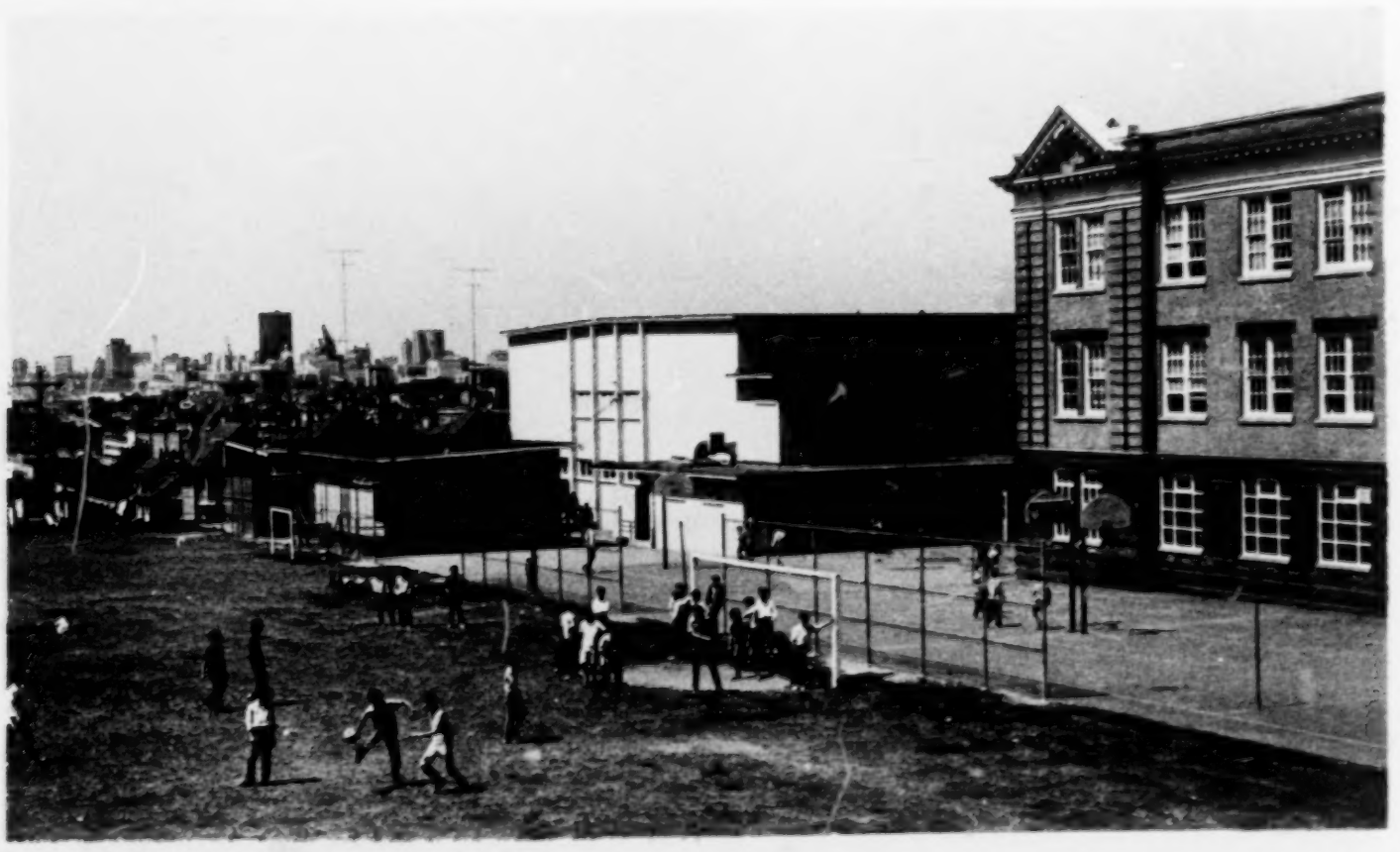

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SECTION TWO

INTRODUCTION

PROBLEM STATEMENT

GENERAL EDUCATION OBJECTIVES

RATIONALE

INTRODUCTION

It is appropriate to begin by outlining what the Inner City Project team have come to see as the major concerns of the *Canada Studies Foundation* and *Project Canada West*. These concerns can be viewed as constraints or guidelines within which the Inner City Project must operate if it is to retain the sponsorship of its two parent organizations. Hence, we feel it imperative to demonstrate our awareness of these concerns, in particular to identify those concerns which in the past year have most influenced our thinking.

A major source of inspiration behind the creation of both the Canada Studies Foundation and Project Canada West was A.B. Hodgetts' book, *What Culture? What Heritage?* Hodgetts believes the ultimate end of Canadian Studies in the high school should be to prepare Canadian youth to play an effective role as citizens in present day Canada by providing them with the requisite knowledge, intellectual skills, and attitudes. Unfortunately, he argues, courses currently being taught fail to do this. Content is antiquated, consisting of unpatterned, all but meaningless facts. Similarly, the means teachers generally employ to transmit this "dead" information--the lecture and single textbook--simply bore students.

But what form should Canadian studies take if it is to achieve its ultimate end. The following statements taken from the last chapter of Hodgetts' book suggest his views on this matter:

1. Canada is unique for at least one very important reason. It is different from all other political communities because of the particular set of problems its people face at any given time...The extent to which Canadians are aware of their identity depends on the depth of their understanding of these problems.

2. Under the right circumstances, dissent becomes a creative social force; problem solving can be a constructive national experience, lifting any society to new heights of achievement.

3. The tools...for identifying, describing, analyzing, and trying to make sense of complex social problems are the intellectual disciplines.

4. No attempt should be made to develop specific attitudes in the minds of the students nor to arrive at predetermined conclusions.

5. New instruction materials and practices can be designed within our basic frame of reference which will allow the students to discover a real and vital Canada for themselves.

These ideas are reflected again and again in the literature of the Canada Studies Foundation and Project Canada West.

The stated purpose of *memorandum #6* of the Canada Studies Foundation is to provide "basic guidelines to teachers and consultants who are or may become involved in projects financed by the Canada Studies Foundation." Perhaps the single most useful guideline is provided by the description of the ultimate goal of the Foundation:

> *...to develop classroom materials, teacher methods and curriculum development procedures that will help our young people to better understand the exposed, multi-ethnic, and regionally diverse nature of their total Canadian environment.*

As means to this ultimate end, the Foundation stresses the following:

1. Materials produced by individual projects for both teacher and student should possess a high degree of transferability and be suitable for commercial publication and dissemination.

2. Provision should be made for the interregional development and exchange of classroom materials and techniques.

3. Projects should incorporate a degree of flexibility in terms of time required to cover the new material so that individual schools or school boards can tailor them to meet their own needs.

4. Projects should emphasize content. Adequate evidence is necessary if differences in regional viewpoints, essential to an understanding of Canada as a whole, are to become fully appreciated.

5. Projects should be developed around the great issues, problems, and values, the striving for common social purposes that Canadian society deems worthy of the continuing concern of its members.

In their position paper, *A Proposal for Curriculum Studies of Urbanization and Formation of a Western Regional Center for Canada Studies*, Project Canada West states that a primary goal of education should be to assist in the development of aware and involved citizens. This can best be achieved, they argue, by developing curricula which will help students to understand their environment. Their reasoning is that in democratic societies citizens play a key role in shaping their environment. If their participation is to be of a rational, constructive nature; if they are to engage confidently in the processes by which their environment is shaped, they must possess knowledge of their environment. And where no knowledge yet exists, they must have the skills to acquire it.

Project Canada West identifies a number of principles which it sees as fundamental to the achievement of its goal. They include the following:

1. Certain skills should be developed continually. These include the skills involved in:

   - observing and describing phenomena
   - classifying and stating generalizations from data
   - making judgments using aesthetic and social criteria
   - problem solving and group decision making
   - questioning others about the environment
   - analyzing issues using a variety of perspectives and modes of inquiry
   - learning independently

2. Maximum use should be made of the community and its resources.

3. Materials developed by individual subprojects should possess certain characteristics. They should:

   - reflect a variety of approaches to various aspects of the phenomena being studied
   - be multi-disciplinary in nature
   - be transferable to other parts of Canada
   - involve a multi-media approach
   - generate inquiry and concept formation
   - actively involve students in the learning process

4. Students should be actively involved in the selection of materials for study.

5. Students should involve themselves directly in the life of their community.

Central to Project Canada West is the theme of urbanization and urban life, one of Hodgetts' continuing Canadian concerns. It is noted that Canada is already predominantly an urban country and is rapidly becoming even more ubran. (By 1980, for example, eight out of ten Canadians will be urban residents.) The point is that the environment, which the vast majority of Canadians must come to understand and learn to control in their capacity as citizens, is, and will be even more so, urban in nature; hence, the need to encourage curriculum projects oriented to the study of urbanization and urban life in Canada.

Project Canada West further justifies its choice of the urbanization theme by suggesting that a Canadian urban studies curriculum project could help promote in students a sense of the unique, diverse nature of the Canadian civic culture. It is pointed out that problems universally encountered in urban centers take on specific forms through the interplay of historical, cultural, geographic, economic, and other factors. In view of Canada's regional diversity and multi-ethnic nature, then, it is not surprising that Canadian urban life displays a remarkable variability. In light of this, before students could be said to be capable of seeing the Canadian urban environment in its total perspective, provision would have had to be made to ensure that they had studied both its general and specific characteristics.

The intention of the foregoing has been to outline for the reader what the Inner City Project team sees as the matrix of larger priorities within which it must operate. Next, we describe the particular societal problem which has become our central concern and which we hope to help solve with our new curriculum; we then outline the general objectives of our project and justify their choice.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

A. Actual State (what "is")

Problem areas commonly associated with urban regions include:

1. housing shortages
2. traffic and transport problems
3. environmental problems
4. conflicting land uses
5. decaying neighborhoods
6. poverty
7. social unrest (crime, racial tension, vadalism, etc.)
8. rising property tax burdens

Despite the fact that these problems are generally more acute in inner city areas (i.e., the fringe areas immediately adjacent to the downtown cores of Canada's major metropolitan centers), it has been the experience of the Inner City Project team, who teach in a school located in such an area, that their students:

1. are largely unaware of these problems
2. lack the intellectual skills and opportunities in school to identify and explore the root causes of these problems
3. are not able to communicate effectively to others what awareness they do have of these problems
4. are not able to discrimate on a rational basis between alternative solutions to these problems
5. feel little sense of direct involvement in the life of their community and the forces shaping their community
6. have little confidence they can influence the forces shaping their community
7. in fact, do not participate in any way in the political life of their community.

It is the suggestion of the Inner City Project team that these phenomena are interrelated and common to many inner city areas in Canada. We also feel that if nothing is done by the school system to alter this situation, it is quite likely that the vast majority of young people now living in inner city areas will remain largely politically unaware and uninvolved or worse, will turn to violence and extreme solutions.

B. Preferred State (what "ought to be")

Through our new curriculum, we hope to provide inner city students with the requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will enable them in later life to participate effectively in the political life of their community. We foresee them participating within existing social institutions or evolving new ones to solve both the continuing and the emergent problems of their environment.

Their participation could take many forms. On the one hand, it could mean simply a person keeping abreast of the pressing issues of his community by regularly reading the newspaper or tuning in to news broadcasts and political and social commentary on radio and television. It could also mean his voting in elections, joining or helping to organize pressure groups, and assuming leadership roles in politically oriented organizations.

It is, of course, impossible to predict with any degree of certainty the scope, frequency, and actual form of future political participation by our students. We do know that the vast majority of them will likely remain in an urban setting, but wherever they may be, we prefer that they be capable of acting as aware, involved, and influential citizens in the political life of their community.

GENERAL EDUCATION OBJECTIVES

How can we, as educators, assist in achieving this preferred state? In other words, what educational objectives should we choose for our curriculum project? The following seem to us logically inplied by the preceding discussion:

A. Cognitive Domain

1. Knowledge

- to know generally the major organizing concepts and modes of inquiry of the intellectual disciplines (history, geography, sociology, social psychology, economics, political science)

- to understand the nature of the problem solving process

- to be aware of the more urgent problems of inner city areas in Canada and their alternative solutions

- to understand generally the nature of media and the communication.

2. Skills

- to possess skills essential to successful problem solving
- to be able to use a variety of conceptual viewpoints to explain urban phenomena
- to be able to learn independently
- to be skilled in collecting and communicating data through a variety of media

B. Affective Domain

- to appreciate the need for the direct involvement of citizens in community political life
- to appreciate the value of seeing a problem from many different perspectives
- to express confidence in one's own political efficacy
- to tolerate differing regional viewpoints on similar urban problems
- to express concern about the future of their present (inner city) community, whether or not they plan to live there in the future.

RATIONALE

There seems little sense in spending time trying to justify our choice of problem. That we have identified a problem worthy of our attention and that this problem reflects at least in part the main concerns of the Canada Studies

Foundation and Project Canada West seems obvious. What is perhaps more worthwhile is for us to show how the general objectives of our proposed curriculum project tie in with the concerns of the two parent organizations. After all, similar means can be used to promote different ends.

It is the view of the Inner City Project team that the distinguishing mark of a truly democratic society is that its members have the freedom, indeed, have the responsibility to initiate action on matters of social concern. In other words, they must assume an active role in deciding what are the crucial issues or problems of their society and how they can best be solved. But they must do more than this. Once they have identified what they feel to be the issues, decided on their order of priority, and chosen their preferred course of action, they must convince their fellow citizens of the validity of their point of view. It is clear that if they are to have any chance at all of accomplishing all this, they must possess certain skills.

Problem solving appears to us to be one of these skills and we have made it a central concern of our project. We believe strongly that if we can successfully devise ways of teaching our students the nature of the problem solving process and training them in the techniques of problem solving, we will have come a long way towards preparing them to play a meaningful role in the political life of their community. In this connection, it is our intention that our students will identify what <u>they</u> believe to be the problems of their community, that <u>they</u> will devise their own explanations as to why these problems exist, and that <u>they</u> will formulate their own solutions to these problems. To facilitate their attempts at problem solving, we will expose our students to the various social sciences. We do not see an understanding of the nature of these disciplines as an end in itself; rather, we see the disciplines as a source of conceptual tools with

which our students can more effectively examine their surroundings.

We have pointed out that in a democracy it is not enough to identify, explain, and devise a solution to a problem; a person must convince others of the worthiness of his beliefs. To have any chance of accomplishing the latter, he must be skilled in communicating how he feels. Furthermore, he must be able to interpret and evaluate messages sent to him.

Thus, it is our intention to expose our students to a variety of media, to show them how these media can be used to convey different types of information about the urban environment, to illustrate how media distort reality and how they have, in fact, been used deliberately to this end, and to instruct them in the use of equipment associated with commonly used non-print media. Also, so as to impress upon our students the idea that communication has not occurred until the message sent has been received and properly understood, and that such "true" communication is less frequent than commonly believed, we will have them delve into the nature of the communication process.

Do our objectives reflect the belief that knowledge of Canadian urban life is important? Obviously, yes. Of course, much of the knowledge gained by our students will be that which they have acquired through study of what they feel to be the problems of their community. But this will only serve to make that knowledge more meaningful and relevant to them.

One further matter. Can our project be used to promote in students an awareness of the diverse regional viewpoints that exist in Canada? Most certainly, if certain provisions are made. Besides doing their own research, students will be expected to communicate their findings to their classmates and to accomplish this they themselves will have to produce the audio, visual, or written material

they use in their presentation. Over the years an extensive library of such material could be compiled. The exciting aspect of this is that schools across the country, using our curriculum and instructional program, or one similar to it, could make contact with each other and arrange to exchange their materials. Presumably such materials would embody, at least to some degree, differing regional viewpoints on Canadian urban life. Naturally, we would hope that the exchange program would contribute to a greater understanding and tolerance by students of regional aspirations.

SECTION THREE

RESEARCH FINDINGS

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The material we have compiled thus far on the social sciences has been drawn primarily from two sources: Edwin Fenton's *Teaching the New Social Studies in Secondary Schools* and Martin Feldman and Eli Seifman's *The Social Studies: Structure, Models, and Strategies*. We have restricted ourselves to examining the disciplines in the most general way. Indeed, the very orientation of our project, student initiated research into urban problems they have identified, precludes any attempt on our part to tie particular social science concepts to different urban problems. We hope eventually to develop materials and strategies we can use to introduce our students to the general points of view currently adopted by the social sciences. Then, once they have identified and selected a problem area, we will assist them, individually, in choosing concepts they might logically use to define the problem more specifically, explore its causes, and devise possible alternative solutions. With this in mind, we have researched a number of articles concerned with the basic structures of the social sciences. We begin by reviewing an article by Joseph Schwab on "structure," then proceed to a brief examination of the disciplines. We conclude with a short bibliography.

In a keynote work[1] for a series of articles exploring the nature of the social sciences, Joseph Schwab addresses himself to analyzing the concept of the structure of a discipline. Noting that the structures of the modern disciplines are complex and diverse, he concludes that:

> *We must look, not for a simple theory of learning leading to a one best learning-teaching structure for our schools,*

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[1] Schwab, J., "The Concept of the Structure of a Discipline," Feldman, E. (ed.), *The Social Studies*, Prentice-Hall, 1969.

> *but for a complex theory leading to a number of different structures, each appropriate or 'best' for a given discipline or group of disciplines.*[2]

In this context, the structures of the disciplines have a two-fold importance to education: they must be taken into account as educators plan curricula and prepare teaching materials, and they are necessary in some part and degree within curricula, as elements of what is taught.

What actually is meant by the structure of a discipline? Schwab's view is that:

> *The structure of a discipline consists, in part, of the body of imposed conceptions which define the investigated subject matter of that discipline and control its inquiries.*[3]

The crucial idea here is that conceptualization precedes research. Concepts are neither self-evident truths nor are they to be treated as matters for immediate verification. Rather, they are to be seen as principles of inquiry, which can be revised when necessary, or abandoned, according to the dictates of theory and data. In other words, as Schwab puts it, conceptions are "guiding principles of inquiry, not its immediate fruits."

Schwab outlines six ways the intrinsic nature of conceptual structures are of significance to education:

1. Educators cannot treat the conclusions of a discipline as if they were about the whole subject matter and were the whole truth about it. A discipline's concepts severely restrict the range of data the researcher seeks in inquiry. Furthermore, this data is interpreted not by full knowledge of their significance, but by concepts having limited meaning and limited validity.

2. Educators cannot treat the structure of a discipline as if it were fixed or permanent. As research progresses and new knowledge is gained, the conceptual structure faces continual revision.

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[2] Ibid, p. 4.

[3] Ibid, p. 6.

3. Educators should understand that revision of a conceptual structure means the incorporation of principles having greater scope and validity.

4. Educators must strive to portray phenomena and ideas not as things in themselves, but as fulfilments of a pattern. Modern inquiry is no longer concerned with simply cataloging knowledge; it stresses the search for patterns --patterns of change and patterns of relations--as their explanatory principles.

5. Educators must deal with the functions of things. As the scope of conceptual structures widen, the coherence of the knowledge which develops from these structures increases. Therefore, phenomena and ideas must never be treated as isolated bits and pieces; they must be seen in their relation to other things.

6. Educators should recognize that different disciplines have widely different structures. This applies to both the bodies of concepts and the processes of discovery and verification of new knowledge.

Keeping the foregoing in mind, let us now turn to a review of what various scholars have said about the structures of the different social science disciplines.

GEOGRAPHY

In his article, "A Conceptual Structure for Geography,"[4] Preston E. James suggests that geography is the field of study which undertakes to develop concepts based on the areal association and interconnection among things and events of unlike origin, where different kinds of processes interact in particular places. He notes that concepts are mental images of things or events and that they are to be distinguished from percepts which are the direct observations of things or events. By its very nature, geography must inevitably deal with concepts that can never be matched with percepts, i.e., with concepts that lie beyond the range of direct human observation. Those concepts referring to features that

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[4] James, P.E., "A Conceptual Structure for Geography," Feldman, M. (ed.), *The Social Studies*, Prentice-Hall, 1969.

can be observed from a single place he calls topographic concepts. Those which refer to things and events too widely spread to be observable from one place he describes as chorographic concepts. And those that occupy the major part of the earth's surface he labels global concepts.

A concept James describes as lying at the core of geography is the region. He sees regions as segments of earth-space that are homogeneous in some way and that can be identified by the existence of some kind of areal association of things or events of unlike origin. He distinguishes between generic regions (regions which are homogeneous in terms of stated criteria) and genetic regions (regions requiring both the identification of area associations and the processes or sequences of events that produced the area associations). He concludes:

> *The recognition of segments of earth-space within which unlike things and events are interconnected to form systems of related parts is the operative definition of the regional method. Such segments of earth-space may be based on a wide variety of phenomena and processes, and may be defined at very different scales or degrees of generalization, ranging from topographic to global.*[5]

Applying the regional concept on a global scale, James goes on to outline a series of related concept systems that could be used to define global regions:

a) Regions based on ecosystems -- here, areal associations of things and events resulting from physical and biological processes are identified.

b) Regions based on habitats -- here, the ways man has modified his natural surroundings through interference with physical and biotic processes are examined.

c) Regions based on the interconnection between habitat features and culture features -- here, changes in the significance of habitats are correlated with the processes of worldwide economic, social and political change.

In another article entitled "Basic Concepts of Geography and Their Development

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5 Ibid, p. 58.

in the Classroom,"[6] Clyde F. Kohn identifies five basic concepts which he contends define the structure of geography. They include areal association and regionality, already elaborated upon. The others are:

1. spatial interaction -- locations on the face of the earth are interconnected;
2. fluidity -- change is an established condition of modern life;
3. man-land relations -- in carrying on the basic activities of living, man is and always has been, and probably will be closely related to the earth on which he is.

HISTORY

History, R.G. Collingwood[7] tells us, is a kind of research or inquiry. It is a science in the sense that the historian first poses questions and then tries to answer them. The object of historical inquiry is the past actions of human beings. History proceeds by the interpreation of evidence about these past actions, in the form of documents, things existing here and now which the historian can use to help answer the questions he asks about past events.

Historians make a distinction between what Collingwood terms the "inside" and "outside" of an event. By the outside of an event, he means everything belonging to it which is directly observable. By the inside of an event, he is referring to those of its properties which can be described in terms of thought. The historian investigates actions, the unity of the outside and inside of events. His ultimate desire is to ascertain the thoughts in the minds of persons by whose agency events came about.

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[6] Kohn, C., "Basic Concepts of Geography and Their Development in the Classroom," Fenton, E. (ed.), *The New Social Studies*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966.

[7] Collingwood, R.G., "The Idea of History," Feldman, M. (ed.), *The Social Studies*, Prentice-Hall, 1969.

As Collingwood puts it:

> *History, then, is not, as it has so often been described, a story of successive events or an account of change. Unlike the natural scientist, the historian is not concerned with events as such at all. He is only concerned with those events which are the outward expression of thoughts, and is only concerned with these insofar as they express thoughts.*[8]

Historical thinking is, fundamentally and firstly, an activity of the human mind. Because of this, no achievement in history is final. As available evidence changes, as historical methods are improved, and as the cultural viewpoints of historians evolve over time, the way past events are interpreted must, necessarily, also change. If we accept this as true, what implications does this belief hold for the teachers of history?

Edwin Fenton[9] concludes that we must cease treating history as a chronicle of past events students are expected to memorize. Rather, he argues, if we are to claim to teach history at all, we must teach our students the methods of interpretation. He notes:

> *Students must learn the rules by which historians collect evidence and use it to interpret the past if they are to read or write history intelligently. They must be able to judge whether an author's conclusions are supported by the evidence he presents. They must also learn to draw their own conclusions and to present the evidence on which these conclusions are based.*[10]

Fenton proposes concentrating on these key issues:

What will a historian accept as fact?

What determines how a historian categorizes facts into groups of related events?

How does the historian develop and validate for disproved hypotheses?

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[8] Ibid, p. 79.

[9] Fenton, E., *The New Social Studies*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966.

[10] Ibid, p. 150.

How can a historian attempt to deal with the problem of overcoming a mind set that is a product of his entire life experience?

POLITICAL SCIENCE

David Easton suggests that political phenomena can best be viewed as a system of interrelated activities; activities related in the sense that they all influence the way in which authoritative decisions are formulated and executed for a society. In his article, "An Approach to the Analysis of Political Systems,"[11] he identifies and describes the component parts of his model of such a system. They include:

a) boundaries -- The boundary of a political system is defined by all those actions more or less directly related to the making of binding decisions for a society.

b) inputs -- These give a political system its dynamic character. They furnish it both with the raw information that the system is called upon to process and with the energy to keep it going.

   Inputs occur in the form of demands and supports. Demands by persons or groups only become inputs where wants exceed the available supply and some special organized effort on the part of society is required to settle the competing demands authoritatively. Support is fed into the political system in relation to the political community, the regime, and the government. Support is generated in two ways: through outputs that meet the demands of the members of society; and through the processes of politicization.

c) outputs -- The authoritative decisions or policies which attempt to satisfy the demands of the members of society.

Roy C. Macridis, in his article, "Comparative Politics: A Scheme of Analysis,"[12] outlines three analytical categories which he feels can be applied to the comparative study of political systems. They are:

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11 Easton, D., "An Approach to the Analysis of Political Decisions," Feldman, M., *The Social Studies*, Prentice-Hall, 1969.

12 Macridis, R.C., "Comparative Politics: A Scheme for Analysis," Fenton, E. (ed.), *The New Social Studies*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966.

1. Decision-Making

Macridis notes:

> *The making of decisions for the attainment of certain purposes--adjustment of conflict, change, adjudication--is probably the most prevalent social function of politics. Political decisions are, however, those which emanate either from authorized persons or from organs which are known and recognized by the community.*[13]

The following questions might usefully be asked:

-- Who makes the decisons?

-- How are decision-makers selected?

-- What is the composition of political elites?

-- What are the different kinds of decisions?

-- What are the steps in the deliberative process?

2. Power

The pursuit of power, like decision making, is a phenomenon characteristic of social and political activity. Political power must be defined in terms of authority. As Macridis puts it:

> *It is that segment of social power which is exercised by recognized and accepted organs to achieve certain commonly shared objectives and purposes of the society.*[14]

Power is transformed into authority through the agency of appropriate political ideology and institutions.

3. Ideology

Macridis defines political ideology as:

> *The patterns of thought and belief related to the state and the government that constitute at one and the same time a source of obedience and consent and a mechanism of control.*[15]

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[13] Ibid, p. 305.

[14] Ibid, p. 309

[15] Ibid, p. 311

He quotes a Professor Lowerstein:

> *An ideology is a consistent and integrated pattern of thoughts and beliefs, or thoughts converted into beliefs, explaining man's attitude toward life and his existence in society, and advocating a conduct and action pattern responsible to, and commensurate with such thoughts and beliefs.*[16]

Macridis notes four aspects of ideology he feels of significance to the comparative study of political systems:

- the sources of the dominant political ideology;
- the diffusion of ideologies;
- the role of the intellectuals in maintaining or challenging the dominant ideology; the social status of the intellectuals;
- the relationship between ideology and the organization of political authority.

ECONOMICS

A fundamental dilemma of man stems from the fact that he pursues a multiplicity of ends with only limited time and means. By itself the multiplicity of ends has no necessary interest for the economist. Nor is the mere limitation of means by itself sufficient to give rise to economic phenomena. If means have no alternative use, they cannot be economized. Nor again is the alternative application of scarce means a complete condition open to economic analysis. If there are two equally important ends and one means, choice becomes arbitrary. But, as Lionel Robbins notes:

> *But when time and the means for achieving ends are limited and capable of alternative application, and the ends are capable of being distinguished in order of importance, then behavior necessarily assumes the*

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[16] Ibid, p. 311 - 312.

> *form of choice. Every act which involves time and scarce means for the achievement of one end involves the relinquishment of their use for the achievement of another. It has an economic aspect.*[17]

Thus, in the forms assumed by human behavior in disposing of source means, the subject unity of economics is found.

Lawrence Senesh outlined a number of key economic ideas which he sees associated ultimately with the scarcity concept:

1. Because of scarcity man has been motivated to evolve means of producing more in less time with less material. Hence, specialization.

2. Specialization necessitates interdependency; independency necessitates a monetary system and a transportation system.

3. Because of scarcity, an allocating mechanism is required. In capitalist societies, allocation is determined by the "free" functioning of the market. In communist societies, the state determines what is allocated, to whom, and to what end.

Some of the basic issues implicit here are:

- What are the means of production?
- Who owns/controls the means of production?
- What are the means of exchange?
- Who owns/controls the means of exchange?
- What are the sources of economic rewards?
- To whom are the economic rewards dispursed?
- What is the level of consumption?

SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

A concept central to both sociology and social psychology is that of culture.

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[17] Robbins, L., "The Subject Matter of Economics," Feldman, M. (ed.), *The Social Studies*, Prentice-Hall, 1969, p. 54.

Culture is concerned with what Herbert Spencer has called the superorganic, i.e., behavior acquired by man as a member of society and persisting through time. While heredity sets limits to culture and determines its broad outlines, it fixes no details. Essentially, culture is learned by the individual from the group and is kept intact, in part, by being transmitted from generation to generation.

While relations between different cultures are often characterized by prejudice and ethnocentrism, this leading invariably to inter-cultural tension and conflict, there is tremendous pressure within any given society to conform to the prevailing practices. The degree of compulsion exerted varies with the significance attached to the behavior in question. Regarding certain matters, the society may be indifferent or may approve a wide range of choice; on other matters what is acceptable may be quite narrowly specified.

A central feature of culture is change. Cultural change occurs at different rates. Whole cultures change at faster rates than others; cultures undergoing rapid change may not change evenly in all parts. If these parts were initially in harmony, such differential change will throw the parts out of adjustment, and relations between them may become strained. In modern Western society, technology has been undergoing extensive change, very rapidly, while adaptive behavior has lagged.

A prerequisite to culture is group interaction. Sociology can be defined as the discipline concerned with the nature, conditions, and consequences of group interaction. The concepts commonly employed in sociological analysis include:

a) <u>primary and secondary groups</u> -- Primary groups are small, closely knit groups such as the family, the play group, and the neighborhood; which

generally exercise strong control over their members, who in turn feel a deep sense of belonging toward them. Their influence on people is most keenly felt in societies where the population is widely dispursed. Secondary groups include clubs, political parties, unions, and professional organizations. The members of such groups get to know only certain aspects of their colleagues' lives. Their relationships tend to be impersonal. The influence of these groups on their members is less pervasive than that of primary groups, although in specific areas, it may be very powerful. Secondary groups are found in greatest profusion in modern industrial societies characterized by large, urban communities with a heterogeneous population having a high rate of physical mobility.

Generally, groups, regardless of type, behave differently between their own members and outsiders. Towards members of one's group, one tends to be friendly, cautious, inhibited, or even hostile. Almost without exception inter-group conflict increases intra-group solidarity and moral.

b) role and status -- The various tasks one performs in society define one's role or roles. Some roles society assigns to individuals on the basis of their innate characteristics such as age or sex. Other roles one can assume or not by free choice. Society evaluates all roles as either superior, inferior, or equal. This ranking of roles is called status.

c) social classes -- By social classes is meant broad groups of individuals differentiated on the basis of occupation, wealth, education, etc., and characterized by dissimilarities in life chances, cultural traits, prestige, and power. In every society there is some degree of social mobility. Where there is little such mobility, social classes are described as "closed;" where there is much opportunity for mobility, classes are considered "open."

Social psychologists are primarily interested in the social influences that contribute to the development and style of human personality. Key concepts include:

a. the idea of self -- The image one has of oneself develops in relation to other persons, especially the opinions of others about oneself. Because these opinions mean so much to people, they go through life constantly adjusting to the expectations of others. This explains in part why people behave differently in different social situations.

b. the significant others -- To each person, some judges are more significant than others. People will especially value the opinions of those with whom they have a close relationship and those who hold power over them. Groups, as well as individuals, will influence one's personality development. But it is not the groups one belongs to that matter, so much as those groups from which one takes his values. Social psychologists term these groups reference groups. Reference groups not only set the standard for one's values, they also set the standard for some of one's satisfactions and dissatisfactions. One may develop a sense of relative deprivation, i.e., the feeling of lacking something one feels he should have because of what his reference groups value and, in fact, possess.

c. socialization -- Socialization refers to the totality of actions taken by significant others in shaping one's behavior so that he may cope with society. It is the process by which one acquires the beliefs and behavior patterns required for membership in society. Very socializing agents in western society include parents, the church, and school.

SOCIAL SCIENCES: A BIBLIOGRAPHY

Feldman, M. (ed.), *The Social Sciences: Structure, Models, and Strategies*, Prentice-Hall, 1962.

Fenton, E. (ed.), *Teaching the New Social Studies in Secondary Schools*, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1966.

Hoselitz, B. (ed.), *A Readers Guide to the Social Sciences*, The Free Press, 1959.

See also

Gibbs, Jack P. (ed.), *Urban Research Methods*, Van Nostrand Princeton, 1961.

PROBLEM SOLVING

The aim of our inquiry into problem solving is to develop a model of the problem solving process and to identify the skills involved in problem solving. Our findings will serve as the basis for the instructional materials we eventually hope to develop in connection with problem solving. Thus far, we have examined the findings of three researchers in this field. While we find it interesting that these people appear to be thinking along similar lines, we do not yet feel prepared to draw any final conclusions. Outlined below is a review of the findings and views of the three researchers. We follow this with a list of the books we intend to use to further pursue our study of problem solving.

B.B. Hodgins, author of *Problem Solving in the Classroom*, suggests that a problem can be said to exist when:

> *...the learner's previous knowledge or patterns of behaviour are insufficient or inappropriate to enable him to provide an acceptable solution. In such a case, a solution becomes possible only as he acquires new knowledge or capitalizes upon relationships which have been seen before.*[18]

Hodgins' research findings have led him to conclude that the processes humans use in solving problems are highly similar from problem situation to problem situation, although the nature of a particular problem may influence the behavior of the problem solver in a specific way. He cites a study by Bloom and Broder (1950) into the behavioral characteristics which differentiate good and poor problem solvers. They found four bases useful for comparison:

1. Understanding the nature of the problem -- the successful problem solver was more likely to make appropriate use of key words; to solve the problem

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[18] Hodgins, B.B., *Problem Solving in the Classroom*, (New York: 1966), p. 1.

as stated.

2. Understanding the ideas contained in the problem -- the successful problem solver possessed the information needed to solve the problems; more significantly, he had the ability to see the possibility of transferring selected portions of his store of information to the particular problem under consideration.

3. General approach to the solution of problems -- a) the successful problem solver approached the problem situation as a set of conditions which he had to reorganize or restructure and to which he had to bring to bear knowledge in his possession in order to reach the stated goal.

   b) the successful problem solver tended to be more systematic in the way in which he worked toward the solution of a problem. He often:

   - broke down the problem into subproblems
   - simplified, reorganized the demands of the problem
   - brought relevant knowledge to bear systematically.

   c) the successful problem solver carried through to completion lines of reasoning used in attempts to solve the problem.

4. Attitude toward the solution of problems -- The successful problem solver valued reason as a tool in solving problems, was confident in his problem solving ability, and avoided personal bias when devising alternative solutions.

Hodgins is particularly concerned with promoting problem solving activity in the classroom. He notes in his introduction:

> *The best service the school could render is not to communicate facts and information that would probably be outmoded before the pupil could apply it in his own life, but rather to develop with students general procedures that hopefully would be applicable to a broad*

range of problems confronting the average citizen.

Later, he outlines what he sees as the critical functions that can be performed by a teacher trying to promote student problem solving:

1. The teacher supervises the selection of pupils' problems -- The task of selecting and solving problems should be left ultimately to the students; the teacher's responsibility is to ensure that his students are, in fact, dealing with problem situations, and if they are, to decide whether they can tackle them with some chance of success under the practical limitations that exist.

2. The teacher provides guidance -- The possibility of seeing new paths to a goal is heightened if one is forced to organize his thoughts while presenting arguments and alternatives in order to explain the problem to someone else. Thus, a teacher can provide a valuable service by simply acting as a listening post. While in such a capacity, he is in position to provide vital clues if his student's progress seems permanently halted.

3. The teacher develops general problem solving skills -- As the teacher encourages his students to look for and to solve problems, he must also give thought to teaching the skills useful for this purpose. These include skills involved in:

   - analyzing a problem to determine its requisites
   - selecting from previous learning those facts or generalizations which are most likely to be applicable
   - evaluating the adequacy of a solution
   - determining when a problem is effectively solved.

4. The teacher reinforces problem behavior -- The teacher must show by his own actions that learning the skills of problem solving are worth both the time

and effort required to achieve them. What he must avoid is simply giving lip service to problem solving, while demanding prompt, precise, "textbook" answers to questions.

In his book, *Common Sense Decision Making*, G.S. Fulcher outlines the sequence of steps he recommends people follow if they wish to make "thoughtful" decisions about problems. We include them here exactly as he describes them:

> *Steps in Making Thoughtful Decisions*
>
> *A. To determine the available alternatives*
>
> *1. Investigation of the problem situation to determine the unsatisfactory features, the causes of these, and other pertinent facts.*
>
> *2. Selection of the purpose to be achieved, the goal to have in mind, the end to be aimed at.*
>
> *3. Determination of the courses of action or policies available to achieve the purpose selected, the means available to achieve the goal.*
>
> *B. To make the best choice between the alternatives*
>
> *4. Prediction of the probable consequences of each of the alternatives or the probable differences in the consequences of the alternatives, so that the decision maker may know what difference it is likely to make if he chooses one rather than the other.*
>
> *5. Evaluation of these predictions by the decision maker so as to determine which alternative, if chosen, is likely to have for him the most desirable results if it is a choice of evils and thus, achieve the purpose most satisfactorily.*[19]

Fulcher points out that the relative importance of these steps may vary greatly from problem situation to problem situation. For example, if no satisfactory alternative is already known, the third step may be the most important; in

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[19] Fulcher, G.S., *Common Sense Decision Making*, (Evanston: 1965), p. 9 - 11.

other situations, other steps may be more important, while certain others may not be needed at all.

Despite this qualification, what marks Fulcher's suggested procedure is its systematic, sequential nature: step two follows step one, step three follows step two, and so on. In contrast, G.B. Cohen in *The Task-Timed Organization of Groups* sees problem solving as a process of successive approximations:

> *In the initial phase, one often has only a vague idea of goals, means, and ways. Only gradually, the picture is made more clear, details are filled in, uncertain ties are reduced, presumptions are checked and declared fact or fiction, hunches are tried out to some extent to see where they will lead, instruments and information processing programs that promise to be of help are detected, batches of data that may contain some valuable information are retrieved and screened, etcetera.*[20]

He does allow that phases in the problem solving process can be identified; for example:

a. recognition that a problem exists

b. analysis and diagnosis of the problem

c. search for alternative solutions to the problem

d. evaluation or testing of these solutions

e. acceptance or rejection of these problems

but, he argues, recognizing the existence of phases should not be taken too literally to mean that a certain type of activity is always followed by a particular second activity. Rather, phases should be seen as occurring in a kind of spiral fashion.

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20 Cohen, G.B., *The Task-Timed Organization of Groups*, (Amsterdam: 1969), p. 13.

Cohen states that a problem exists when:

> *...the present state of affairs is found to be unsatisfactory and when attempts are initiated to change it in a more desirable direction.*[21]

He notes that problem situations differ: in the most primitive situation, the problem contains neither data nor goal; in a fully fledged problem situation, both the "initial" and "end" states are highly specific, although the "connecting path" has yet to be constructed.

Like Hodgins, Cohen is interested in the behavior exhibited by problem solvers. In chapter one of his book, he examines such behavior in numerous contexts. For example:

1. The search for alternatives -- Cohen has found that problem solvers often generate alternatives through an intuitive process, i.e., they do not follow a deliberate and discursive pattern. Interestingly, the problem solver frequently expresses surprise when he arrives at alternatives in this manner. Cohen believes what has happened here is that elements of the problem solver's past experience are combined in some associative way and put into some order by the desired state of affairs.
2. The comparison of alternatives -- Generally, as soon as an alternative is found, it is evaluated in terms of its anticipated effects, either by comparison with previously constructed alternatives or with the desired goal. Cohen has found that problem solvers, in attempting to make comparisions between alternatives, are often stymied because they lack a common basis for comparison; also, that the aspiration level of problem solvers determine in sufficient measure whether an alternative will be adopted or not.
3. Differences between problem solvers -- Problem solvers differ in the way

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[21] Ibid, p. 8.

they:

- prefer or want to avoid risks
- focus mainly on the anticipated satisfactions or dissatisfactions
- aim at short-term or long-run effects.

A final note: It is quite obvious by the very nature of the problems we wish our students to deal with that they will not be able to carry the problem solving process to completion. No one could possibly expect them to even begin to solve a problem such as urban decay. At most, we intend that they go part way through the process, to the point where the initiation of action would be the next logical step.

PROBLEM SOLVING: A BIBLIOGRAPHY

Cohen, G.B., *The Task-Timed Organizations of Groups*, Swets & Zeitlinger, Amsterdam, 1969.

Fulcher, G.S., *Common Sense Decision Making*, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1965.

Hodgins, B.B., *Problem Solving in the Classroom*, The MacMillan Company, New York, 1966.

Kleinmuntz, B. (ed.), *Problem Solving: Research, Method, and Theory*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1966.

Moier, N.R.F., *Problem Solving and Creativity in Individuals and Groups*, Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1970.

Van De Greer, J.P., *A Psychological Study of Problem Solving*, Vitgeverij De Toonts Haorlem, 1957.

COMMUNICATIONS, MEDIA

Our research into this vast area has been restricted thus far to an examination of various models of the communication process. Two worth mentioning are D.K. Berlo's well known S-M-C-R model and a model developed by Wilbur Schramm of the Institute for Communications Research, Stanford University.

Berlo identifies four main elements in the communication process: the source (the person or group who initiates communication), the receiver (the object of the communication), the message (which he analyzes in terms of code, content, element, and structure), and the channel (the five human senses comprising the different channels available to sources and receivers). Berlo emphasizes that communication is a process, and while he admits that his model may give a person the initial impression that communication is uni-directional, he states emphatically that this is not his intention. Rather, he says, communication is a dynamic, multi-directional process.

Schramm's model is similar to Berlo's. He notes that the goal of communication is the establishment of a common understanding between the source and destination (the receiver in Berlo's model). Perhaps Schramm's most penetrating observation is that a system can be no stronger than its weakest link, the "maximum capacity" of a communication system depending on the "separate capacities" of each unit. These units include the source, encoder, message, signal, channel, decoder, and destination. The source constructs and usually, but not necessarily, encodes the message. The message itself is made up of signs meaningful to both the source and destination, and is transmitted as signals (these comprise the "observable" event) via one or more channels. The destination receives the signals, decoding them as signs. These signs he then interprets and thereby

achieves an understanding of the message. But he does not stop there. He will then begin to construct and encode his own "response-message" to send the source, providing the latter with feedback that will allow him to assess whether, in fact, there has been effective communication. (Hence, Schramm, like Berlo, sees communication as an ongoing multi-directional process.)

The models outlined above identify several factors of key importance in a communications system. Of these, the significance of the source and receiver cannot be minimized. It is true that a breakdown at any point in the communications chain would prevent communication. But if either or both the source and receiver were not present, there would be no need for communication. They provide, as it were, the motivating force in a communication system.

The success of communication in any situation depends ultimately on the source and receiver. For his part, the source must have a good grasp of certain skills. He must be able to encode a message using the correct signs, choose an appropriate channel (or channels) and send the signals comprising the message through this channel effectively. Unfortunately, the number and complexity of source skills required in modern society is ever increasing. Every source must add constantly to his repertoire of signs. Certainly, the electronic media provide him with extensions of his senses, but he must possess elaborate technical skills if he is to use them effectively. And as the number of message signals in our environment grow ever larger, he must compete with their sources more vigorously and with greater sophistication if he is to ensure that his own message is "heard."

The source must also be aware of the attitudes he holds, particularly the attitudes he holds in relation to himself, to the information he is communicating, and

to the receiver of his communication. He must be confident of his skill as a communicator; he must try to be objective about what he is communicating, or, if he feels he cannot achieve objectivity, he must state clearly what his prejudices are; finally, he must guard against revealing negative feelings he might have about his receivers as they would distort or tune out his message in their attempt to control their negative emotional response to the unwelcome "secondary" stimuli.

In addition, the source must possess knowledge of those receiving his message. It is self-evident that the source should understand clearly the message that he is communicating, but all too often this is a rule that is violated. Similarly, sources who might have a thorough grasp of the information they are conveying sometimes fail to take into account the level of understanding currently possessed by their receivers. Hence, true communication is made highly unlikely.

A source, finally, must be aware of the cultural setting in which he and his receivers are living. He must be aware that the groups he belongs to, his social roles, as perceived by himself and his receivers, and the relative status these groups and roles enjoy in the society will in part determine the form and content of his message and the receptivity of his receivers. He must also be careful to avoid using signs in his messages whose "metaphonical" meaning is offensive or inflammatory in that particular setting. (Conversely, he can use culturally significant signs to make his messages all the more powerful.)

What of the receiver? He, too, must possess certain skills, skills that are distinctly different from source skills. For example, while it is essential that a receiver be "sensitive" to the communication channels utilized by the source, the converse does not have to hold true. (Obviously a receiver must be able

to see if a source is sending visual messages, but it is not essential that the source also be able to see.) A receiver must also have the capacity to decode and interpret message signals, and this too involves a set of skills quite different from encoding skills.

Attitudes held by the receiver also affect communication effectiveness in a way quite different from source held attitudes. Whereas source attitudes will simply distort the selection of information, receiver attitudes may be to a partial screening out or even a complete rejection of a message.

The receiver's attitudes will, of course, be greatly influenced by his cultural background. The very fact that he, or the source, is a member of a particular group will mean that his senses may automatically reject certain message signals. Indeed, it may be socially damaging or even dangerous for him to be receptive to certain sources. On the other hand, the receiver must not allow his culturally nurtured response patterns to severely impair his effectiveness as a receiver. He should be aware that his social position and cultural heritage will have predisposed him to react to different messages in particular ways, and he should be prepared to question and even alter these conditioned reactions.

Here included is a list of a few of the books we intend to use to further our understanding of communications:

Aranguren, J.L., *Human Communication,* McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Berelson, B. (ed.), *Public Opinion and Communication,* The Free Press, 1966.

Montague, A. (ed.), *The Human Dialogue,* The Free Press, 1967.

Schramm, W.L. (ed.), *Mass Communications,* University of Illinois Press, 1960.

Thayer, L., *Communication,* Spartan Books, 1967.

Travers, R.M.W., *Man's Information System,* Chandler, 1970.

Travers, R.M.W., et al, *Research and Theory Related to Audiovisual Transmission,* U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1967.

We intend also to explore the nature of media (especially non-print media). In this connection, the following may prove to be of some value:

Feininger, A., *The Creative Photographer,* Prentice-Hall, 1955.

Huss, R., *The Film Experience,* Delta, 1968.

Kracauer, S., *Theory of Film,* Oxford University Press, 1960.

McLuhan, M., *Understanding Media,* McGraw-Hill, 1967.

McLuhan, M., et al, *Hot and Cool,* The Dial Press, 1967.

Our main object in studying communications and media is to provide ourselves with knowledge we can transmit to our students that will help them to communicate to others more effectively. But knowledge by itself is insufficient. Our students must also be provided with the skills that will permit them to use different media. For example, they must be shown how to operate tape recorders, movie cameras, TV equipment, etc. Furthermore, they must be acquainted with the techniques involved in such undertakings as film making and television production. These books would seem to be of some assistance here:

Ball, J. (ed.), *Research, Principles, and Practice in Visual Communications,* National Education Association, 1960.

Brown, J.W., et al, A.V. *Instruction: Media and Methods,* McGraw-Hill, 1964.

Frye, H.R., *Techniques for Producing Visual Instructional Media,* McGraw-Hill, 1970.

Millerson, G., *The Technique of Television Production,* Communication Arts Books, 1968.

Murgio, M.P., *Communications Graphics,* Van Nostrand, 1969.

Pincus, E., *Guide to Film Making,* The New American Library, 1969.

Time Life Books, *Life Library of Photography,* 1970.

NOTE: One other area that we have not yet begun inquiry into but which we feel we should familiarize ourselves with is that of learning theory, seen from the point of view of its possible utilization in instructional planning. In this connection, the following books would appear to be useful:

Bigge, M., *Learning Theory for Teachers*, Harper & Row, 1969.

Gagne, R.M., *The Conditions of Learning*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965.

Harris, T.L. (ed.), *Selected Readings on the Learning Process*, Oxford University Press, 1961.

Hilgard, E.R. (ed.), *Theories of Learning and Instruction*, University of Chicago, 1964.

Kuethe, J., *The Teaching-Learning Process*, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1968.

See also

Kibler, et al, *Behavioral Objectives and Instruction*, Allyn & Bacon, 1970.

SECTION FOUR

CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF INTENDED LEARNING OUTCOMES

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL TO BE DEVELOPED

TRANSFERABILITY OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF INTENDED LEARNING OUTCOMES

We will take the following into consideration when choosing the ILOs for our instructional program:

a. philosophical

- are the ILOs logically implied by the stated aims of the project?

- do the ILOs support or negate each other?

b. intellectual

- are the ILOs appropriate in terms of what the students are ready for, i.e., do they possess the necessary background knowledge and skills?

- are the ILOs in keeping with our students' innate abilities and limitations?

c. social

- do the ILOs in any way reflect what students perceive as their needs and interests?

- do the ILOs violate widely accepted social values (certain special characteristics of the surrounding community may create special restrictions on what ILOs can be chosen)?

d. professional

- are the ILOs realistic in light of the background knowledge and pedagogical skills that we as teachers and subject area specialists possess?

- if not, is it feasible that we can acquire the necessary knowledge and skills (through workshops and in-service training, etc.) within a reasonable time?

e. pedagogical

- is there common agreement amongst subject area specialists regarding the validity of the ILOs?

- do the ILOs reflect what is widely accepted as the ultimate objective of any educational enterprise: the nurturing of the capacity to think?

- is there sufficient time to achieve the ILOs?

- are the necessary human and material resources obtainable?

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL TO BE DEVELOPED

The major item will be a teacher's manual containing:

a. a statement of the problem, general educational objectives, and rationale

b. a model of the problem solving process

c. a brief analysis of the structures, organizing concepts, and modes of inquiry of the social science disciplines

d. a model of the communication process

e. an analysis of the nature of media; a brief list of kinds of media available for use by teachers and students

(b–e: each of these will be accompanied by annotated bibliographies)

f. a short bibliography listing titles of books, pamphlets, etc., describing techniques high school students can use to gather information about their community

g. an outline of the suggested sequence of learning experiences (each learning experience will be accompanied by a list of corresponding ILOs and a brief description of suggested teaching strategies and instrumental content)

h. an explanation of a procedure by which student produced materials can be exchanged by different schools

See also:

A. Types of Instrumental Content

1. A multi-media presentation (simultaneous projection of slides and movie film accompanied by a sound track) illustrating those problems commonly associated with inner-city areas.

2. A dialogue and/or simulation games designed to reveal the structure of the social sciences.

3. A classroom demonstration to show how the media one chooses to convey a message influences that message.

4. A classroom demonstration of the techniques one can use to collect and communicate information about his community.

5. A field trip through the inner city.

6. A simulation game to illustrate how problems are solved.

7. A student handbook containing

   a) a step by step description of the problem solving process

   b) a bibliography of students' references pertaining to:

      - the social sciences
      - communications; media
      - community research techniques
      - urban studies.

8. Student produced material in many forms (photographs, slides, sound tapes, video tapes, O.H. transparencies, written and oral reports, etc.) and combinations of these.

B. Development of Instrumental Content

The teacher's manual and the instrumental content described in items 1 - 7 will be teacher produced and will be prepared during the pre-active phase of the project. If our budget for 1971-72 is approved, we expect to complete production before September 1, 1971. All student produced material will be developed during the interactive phase of the project, that is, after September 1, 1971.

C. Use of the Instructional Content in the Interactive Phase

Much of the teacher produced material will be utilized in the first part of the instructional program, when our students are learning the knowledge and skills that we hope will enable them to become effective communicators and problem solvers. The student produced material will come into use in the last part of the program, when students are conveying to their classmates their views on a particular urban problem.

TRANSFERABILITY OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The teacher produced material will be primarily concerned with process, in particular, the problem solving process. We believe that such material could be readily transferred to schools in other inner city areas in Canada, indeed, to schools located in any type of urban setting and be utilized by teachers teaching Grades 10, 11 or 12 Social Studies. The material related to the teaching of research and communications skills could also be used in these schools.

If this were all that was transferable, we would have to admit to a fundamental flaw in our project. There would be little chance of our students acquiring an awareness of differing regional viewpoints on urban problems. But more will be transferable than the process material. We will also have transferable content in the form of student produced material relating to their interpretations of urban problems and suggested solutions. Note that we are not suggesting that this material should be marketed. We hope, rather, (as we stated previously) that some provision could be made for its temporary exchange between different schools utilizing our curriculum and instructional program. The point is that at least some of this material would be chosen because of the way it reflected a particular regional viewpoint on urban problems.

SECTION FIVE

EVALUATION OF TEAM'S PROGRESS

ADVICE TO OTHERS

EVALUATION OF TEAM'S PROGRESS

A. How has the team progressed?

Self-evaluation is difficult, but we believe that we can say that we have achieved the following:

1. We have acquired a common understanding of the language and structure of curriculum and instructional design.
2. We have achieved consensus on the identity and nature of the societal problem with which we are concerned as well as the goals and rationale for our project.
3. We have identified those areas where we feel we must seek expert advice and have successfully contacted various people, both within and outside the university to act as consultants in those areas.
4. We have initiated a research program into the nature of the problem solving and communication processes and the following intellectual disciplines: history, geography, sociology, social psychology, economics, and political science.
5. We have acquired some expertise with various non-print media as the result of a two-day workshop sponsored by the National Film Board.
6. We have ironed out certain organizational problems that were impeding communication within the team.
7. We have convinced administrative personnel within the school and at the school board level of the value and viability of our project and now enjoy their moral, administrative, and financial support.
8. We are presently testing out certain components of our proposed curriculum and instructional program with a number of experimental groups in the school.
9. We have purchased photography equipment (two still cameras, a movie camera,

an enlarger, an editor, a splicer, a film projector), two portable tape recorders, and softwear for this equipment. These are being used by students in the different experimental groups.

10. We have set up an organizational structure within the school to facilitate students' use of our equipment and to process the materials they use.
11. We have sketched out the nature and possible sequence of learning experiences for our instructional program.

B. Advice to others.

1. If teachers are to act effectively as program developers, a knowledge of the vocabulary of curriculum and instructional design is vital. Unfortunately, different writers use different words to describe or explain essentially the same phenomena. (Compare Goodlad, Johnson, and Tyler, for example.) We would suggest that groups of teachers who desired to develop new curricula and instructional programs agree from the outset to use one particular conceptual model.
2. Another matter that should be decided at the very beginning is what societal problem is the project designed to resolve. Until consensus is achieved by team members, no other work can be undertaken. Team personnel may find it extremely difficult to come to an agreement but it is better that they spend some time at the beginning on this matter than to discover halfway along that they are working at cross purposes.
3. Efforts should be made to involve students in the pre-active phase of the project. This will help to generate interest in the project within the student body, an interest that is essential if the new course to be offered is not of a "required" nature. It may also mean that the project will be more in tune with students' needs and interests.

4. Since so much time is required at the outset to get a curriculum project properly under way, the project team should contrive to acquire a block of release time from their regular teaching activities. Indeed, it has been the experience of the Inner City Project team that unless such time is made available and continues to be made available throughout the pre-active phase, progress will be very slow. Team members will spend much of their release time working directly on the project but part of it should be used for the "in-service" education and training of team personnel in knowledge and skills important to the project but which they lack.
5. A logical, fair division of labor should be worked out. It might be worthwhile to compile an inventory of the skills, specialized knowledge, and interests of individual team members. Tasks could then be assigned to those best equipped to deal with them. However, care should be taken to see that the work load is equitably distributed. Those who feel that they have been given too much or too little to do might easily become disenchanted with the project.
6. If it becomes apparent that a team has encountered a difficulty that it cannot overcome itself, it should not hesitate to call upon the services of an expert. Quick action of this sort will save much confusion and lost time.
7. It is worthwhile to work out a critical path showing what has to be accomplished in what order by what dates. This will give the project a sense of direction and will allow team members to better co-ordinate their activities both within and outside the project.

SECTION SIX

BUDGET (1971-72)

B U D G E T

(JULY 1, 1971 - JUNE 30, 1972)

Teacher release time	
a. August 16 - September 3, 1971	$ 3,000.00
b. September 6, 1971 - June 30, 1972	8,000.00
Consultant fees	250.00
Clerical assistance	250.00
Equipment costs	
(including purchase of a Sony Port-a-Pak VTR with camera, 2 Kodak Carousel slide projectors, etc.)	4,000.00
Materials	
(tapes, film, etc., for A/V production)	500.00
Miscellaneous	
(travel expenses to PCW conferences, workshops, etc.)	1,000.00
	$17,000.00

/lkd/sj
June 14, 1971
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